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ABSTRACT

Beginning with general observations on the human element in excellent teaching that often goes unnoticed by researchers, this speaker provides a wide range of suggestions for making more effective use of class time. These suggestions pertain to monitoring time on and off task, classroom organization and planning, making assignments, clarifying expectations, improving distribution of materials, assigning seats, grouping students vs. working with individuals, working with groups, rules for behavior, interactive instruction, reviewing, organizing information, checking for understanding, reteaching, oral reading, summarizing, establishing a supportive environment, and monitoring student outcomes. A summary lists the advantages and disadvantages of some major teaching strategies: lecture, discussion, drill and practice, independent study, group investigation, laboratory approach, discovery, the learning center, simulation, behavior modification, performance-based learning activity packages, and "do-look-learn" (teacher-guided, small group instruction). References and handouts are included. (TE)

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EFFECTIVE USE OF CLASSROOM TIME

Jane Stallings

Jane Stallings is well-known across the nation for her work in effective teaching strategies. In the fall of 1983, she joined the faculty of Peabody Teachers College, Vanderbilt University, where she heads a Center for Research in Excellence in Teaching. She is the founder of the Stallings Teaching and Learning Institute at Mountain View, California. She spent 12 years at the Stanford Research Institute at Menlo Park, California, conducting research on effective educational techniques. Stallings earned her B.S. in elementary education and science education at Ball State University and her Ph.D. in education and child development at Stanford. She taught for 10 years in public and private schools--preschool to junior high.

In this recent stampede towards excellence, I'd like us not to forget some of the basic things that we value about teachers. I believe that some things can be researched and other things cannot be researched. We tend to grab hold of things that can be researched and base all teacher and school evaluations on those things. We want to define a good teacher by things we can see, hear, and count. As a researcher, I think we need to be careful and to be sure that the things we value most are also included when we think about evaluating teachers and establishing teacher preparation programs.

I'd like for you to take a minute and think back in time to your favorite teacher. What are the one or two special qualities that make that person memorable after all these years?

Responses: warm personality...keen interest in children...liked what she was doing...had high expectations...made everything fun...thorough...caring...allowed student participation...understanding...liked subject matter...fair...witty...enthusiastic...knowledgeable...demanding...energetic...patient...he/she listened...nurtured talent...business-like

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Edited by Beth D. Sattes

My favorite teacher was a geometry/algebra teacher. She was fair, firm, and clear. She required that you get your body in the room and be in your seat with your materials when the bell rang. If you did your part, Miss Clark taught you algebra. She worked really hard and she helped you work hard. In her way she made it fun, but it was also very business-like. I guess I love her for not letting us fail, because I was pretty sure I was going to.

This list of things that you've generated is a pretty universal list. If I went to other groups of people with that same question, we'd end up with a list that looks very much like this. We may get a few different words or terms, but the ideas would be there, especially this idea of warmth and personal interest. If you made a list of three or four qualities of your favorite teacher, how many of you would include personal interest? (Almost every hand in the room.) You are saying, "In some way that person cared personally about me and that's why I remember him/her all this time, because I had the feeling of being cared for." And this idea of warmth--it felt good to be there; it was a nice place to be.

I have done this exercise to make a point. As we think about excellence in schooling and excellence in teaching, we need to keep in mind those qualities that we value most because those are real values. We may not be able to count them in frequency counts or give them percentages of time, but they are terribly important. We must not forget those qualities in our rush to be excellent, because they are a part of being excellent.

Using Time Effectively

In an effort to identify effective methods to teach basic skills, quite a lot of classroom observation research was funded during the

1970's. There was a reasonable payoff from this investment. Fisher, et al., established that in classrooms where more time was allocated to academic pursuits, students showed greater gains on achievement tests. Further, in classrooms where students spent more time engaged in appropriate learning tasks, greater progress was made. Stallings, Fairweather, and Needels (1978) pressed these ideas further and found that in secondary basic skills classrooms, effective teachers spread the available time over several activities, were interactive with students, and provided a supportive environment. In such classrooms, students were on task more often. Research by Evertson and Emmer (1980) has indicated that those teachers who make clear on the first day of school what is expected in terms of assignments and behavior have more smoothly-running classrooms. They were found to spend less time on organizational or behavioral problems throughout the year.

A simple method to check on students' on-task behavior is to use the seating chart observation form. (See Time Off-Task Manual, Appendix D.) Such objective information can help the teacher see which students are off-task during which activities. This information can guide the teacher's assessment of whether the lessons are too hard or too easy for uninvolved students, or whether students' locations in the classroom should be changed. If many students are found to be off-task the last 10 minutes, the teacher may wish to change the activities planned for the end of the period.

Classroom Organization and Planning

The findings from the study by Evertson and Emmer (1980) of teacher planning and management at the beginning of the school year were explicit

enough to guide practice. They were similar to the Stallings, et al. (1978), findings which were translated into a series of in-service workshops (Stallings, Needels, and Stayrook, 1979). In that series of workshops, we guided teachers to plan activities that would account for the entire class period, beginning when students enter the room and continuing until they leave. Teachers exchanged ideas on effective ways to take roll, make assignments, pass materials, assign seats, and group students. We found that, when considering classroom organization, it helped to view it from the students' perspective, for example:

1. How soon after entering the classroom are students informed of the day's assignment?

2. Are the students told the kind, amount, and quantity of work that is expected during the period?

3. Is the work assigned so that, for each period, students know the goal and can have a feeling of accomplishment?

4. Do students know how materials are distributed in class and what materials they must bring to class? Are the penalties clear for not having them?

5. What procedures are established for students to receive feedback for their work during the period?

6. Do students know where to sit, what group they are in, when to work alone, and when to work with a group?

7. Are students aware of the teacher's expectations regarding their behavior?

We found that effective teachers used a focus activity or a "sponge" that takes up time which is normally wasted at the beginning or ending of a period. When students walk through the door, there is a short activity they can do to earn extra points while the teacher takes roll, passes out papers, or organizes materials. They don't sit there chatting, so their off-task behavior is lower. (See sample sponge activities, Appendix D.)

Making assignments. All students should be aware of the assignment immediately upon entering the classroom. Any lapse between a student's entering the room and receiving information about the day's assignment is time spent off-task, and subsequently means lost learning time. We suggest two ways to make assignments quickly and efficiently. Some teachers will find it most effective to give the students their assignments as they enter the classroom. If the students have individual folders and assignments, they can be handed to the students as they enter the door. This procedure immediately establishes the work expectations of the teacher and allows the students to begin work immediately. It is also a means of checking the attendance for the day because any folders not given to students will identify those who are absent.

If the individual folders are not used, the assignments should be written on the board prior to the students' entering. As soon as the bell rings, the teacher calls attention to the assignments on the board and students start their work while the teacher takes the roll. If the students' assignments are based on groups, the group assignments are identified. For basic skills classes, it is important to make assignments short enough to be completed during the allotted class time.

Clarifying expectations. The teacher's objective is for all students in the class to begin their assignments as quickly as possible. Some students may try to delay the assignment by asking unnecessary or repetitive questions. The teacher should have a strategy for dealing with this type of delay and not reward the behavior by giving these students undue attention. One strategy is to reward those who start quickly by a point system--subtract points for not starting quickly. If many students do not

understand the assignment, check to see if there is ambiguity in what you have said. Ask some students to explain the assignment. If the student cannot do this, restate the directions and check for understanding. Make clear the quality of work that is expected as well as the quantity. If completed sentences and correct punctuation are required, say so and be consistent. Be clear about the student's responsibilities for completing the work. What are the prizes for completion? What are the penalties for not completing it? What do they do when it is completed? Teachers need to plan so that students do not line up to wait for the teacher to check papers or sit at their desks, waiting with their hands up. Such procedures waste valuable student time. Some teachers have students check each other's papers for quality and quantity. Then the teacher checks. The central idea here is to be certain that all students know exactly what is expected and that as little time as possible is taken to get them started on the tasks to be accomplished. Effective teachers spend less than 15 percent of the class time with these organizational tasks.

Improving distribution of materials. The manner in which students acquire their materials is also important. Students selecting their materials from the same area at the same time can often be a source of disruption and time off-task. For example, if several students are trying to select materials from a reading kit center, they are most likely to start socializing. Do not offer this opportunity. The teacher walking around the room distributing materials to individual students and explaining the work individually is also an inefficient technique. Each teacher must think through and plan the best system for distributing materials in order to save time and to avoid promoting social situations. Materials might be

handed to the students as they enter the room or be placed on the students' desks before class starts. Perhaps a student who arrives early can assist with distributing materials.

Students should know what materials they are expected to bring with them each day. Have a back-up plan for students who arrive without the required materials. Having extra materials available to be used during the period, but returned at the end of the period, would assure that every student would be able to work on the assignment for the day. Some teachers save short stubby pencils for this purpose; other teachers trade a student's possession for a pencil and trade back at the end of the period. Positive reinforcement for the students who remember to bring the materials with them--such as giving extra points for classroom behavior--helps to encourage students to arrive with the required materials.

Assigning seats. The more effective teachers assign students to seats and keep a seating chart. Secondary teachers often have 100-200 students and the seating chart helps them call students by name more quickly. Seats should be assigned to facilitate student learning, paying particular attention to those students with sight, hearing, or distraction problems. A seating plan should also allow for grouping of students for some instructional activities.

Grouping Students vs. Working with Individuals

During the 1960's and 1970's, many theoreticians and educators embraced the idea of individualized instruction, especially for the slow learner. While there is a certain appeal to having students work at their own pace through sequenced materials and having the teacher work with one

student at a time, there are distinct inequities in this organizational system. Given a 50-minute period and 25 students, a teacher cannot provide instruction and feedback to every student every day. All students cannot get their questions answered. The result is that in classrooms where the individualized approach is used, students are off-task more often and make less academic gain.

A better use of the teacher's instructional time is to group students for some portion of the class period. In several Stallings studies, effective secondary teachers were found to provide instruction to the total group initially and then to reteach and clarify instructions to a small group. Teachers then monitored the work of individuals no more than 35 percent of the class period. These findings on groupings are consistent with those of other studies (Rosenshine, 1977; Soar, 1973; Stallings and Kaskowitz, 1973).

Working with groups. All classes, even remedial ones, have students operating at different levels. Students should be grouped according to the skills they need to learn. For reading, this should be determined through tests that assess the student's decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension skills. Often this information is not available in the student files. Therefore, it is important that the classroom teacher is capable of administering simple diagnostic tests and locating materials to use with groups of students. Students with limited vocabularies and/or poor reading skills have difficulty reading content materials (e.g., science or social studies). This requires a total-group short lecture with demonstrations and questions to check understanding, followed by small group reteaching of concepts, and a drill and practice session. Groups should

be flexible so that students don't feel stuck in a group. As previously stated, they are formed to facilitate the learning of specific skills.

The placement of the teacher in relationship to members of the class is important when organizing the class for group work. The teacher should be aware of what the rest of the class is doing when his or her attention is focused on a particular group. Therefore, it is important for the teacher to be in a position where the rest of the class can be seen easily, never turning his or her back on the rest of the class. In this way, not only is the teacher able to monitor all the students, but the students are aware that they can be seen.

The groups should be positioned so that they do not distract each other. When the teacher is working with one group, the other group(s) should be placed so that they are not facing each other.

One teacher had the 18 lower achieving students in the social studies class sitting in the front of the room. Twelve higher achieving students sat in the back of the room. The teacher first provided instruction to the total group, then the 12 higher achieving students were asked to turn their desks toward the back wall and complete a writing assignment while the teacher provided more concept building activities and oral reading to the lower achieving students. At the end of 15 minutes, the lower achieving students started their seat work. The teacher moved to the other end of the room and discussed the ideas in the lesson with the higher achieving group. (Moving the desks took less than a minute.)

Rules for Behavior

In the Evertson and Emmer study (1980) the effective managers made clear the rules for behavior on the first day and integrated the procedures into a

workable system. They planned the first day for maximum contact and control over the students. They began the period explaining the rules and procedures and the reasons for having them. The better managers spent considerable time during the first week reminding students of the rules and carrying through with penalties. Students responded positively with less misbehavior.

In our studies, effective teachers posted rules for behavior and the penalties. Some teachers used point systems for good behavior. Students lost points for bad behavior. In schools where rules were consistent throughout the school, there was less misbehavior.

Interactive Instruction

One of the most important findings to emerge from our studies of teaching basic skills to secondary students, was that effective teachers provided several activities during one class period. Students did not spend the entire period doing worksheets or silent reading. Effective teachers distributed this time approximately as shown in Table 1. Less effective teachers spent more time organizing and more time on noninteractive instruction. They tended to jump from instruction to written work. They omitted checking for understanding and reteaching. Their students were off-task more often and were absent more often.

Reviewing. As indicated in Table 1, effective teachers spent 50 percent of their time providing interactive instruction to students. The first step is to review previous materials. This might be homework, seatwork from the day before, or a returned test. Students need feedback on what was right or wrong. Teachers who have 100-200 students will find it difficult to grade papers for every student very frequently. It is

Table 1

Time Allocations

Organize/Management Activities	(15%)
(E) Take roll	
(E) Make announcements	
(E) Make expectations clear for the period: quality and quantity of work	
(E) Clarify any behavior expectations	
(E) Pass papers or books (out and in)	
Interactive On-Task Activities	(50%)
(E) Review/discuss previous work	
(E) Inform/instruct new concept (demonstrate/ give examples)	
(E) Question/check for understanding	
(S) Reteach small group (if necessary)	
(S) Read aloud/develop concepts	
(E) Summarize	
Non-Interactive On-Task Activities	(35%)
(L) Written work	
(L) Silent reading	
(I) Teacher monitoring/guiding	

Key

E = Total Class
S = Small Group
L = Large Group
I = Individual

important then to provide some short quizzes that can be quickly graded and some assignments that can be graded by students. One effective teacher enlisted parents to grade papers once a month. They were instructed by the teacher on how to make corrections. Another teacher asked parents to grade their own child's homework before it was submitted. In both cases, the teachers' loads were lightened and students received more feedback.

Organizing information. The next step is for the teacher to provide some new information or concept. It is crucial that the information is offered in a way that links it to previous knowledge and that we explain the purpose of the lesson. Unless we tell students the purpose, they may miss the whole intent of the day's lesson. Let me give you an example of a study John Bransford did at Vanderbilt. We asked a group of people to read a passage. Half were told to read the article as a prospective home buyer; the other half read the article from the perspective of a burglar, who was interested in how to break into the house. Then we gave a test. The home buyers got the items right that dealt with the wiring, plumbing, etc. The burglars got the items right that dealt with doors, windows, locks, etc. You make linkages in your mind in terms of what you remember, because the purpose is different so you focus on different things.

I have another example that emphasizes the importance of presenting the purpose. When children don't really know the purpose, because the teacher hasn't systematically said what it is, their minds don't make connections. Listen to this passage and see what your mind makes of it.

> Sally first let loose a team of gophers, but the plan backfired when the dog chased them away. She then threw a party, but the guests failed to bring their motorcycles. Furthermore, her stereo system was not loud enough. Sally spent the next day looking for a peeping tom but was unable to find one in the yellow pages. Obscene phone calls gave her some hope until the number was changed. It was the installation of blinking neon lights across the street that finally did the trick. Sally framed the ad from the classified section and now has it hanging on her wall.

Look how your mind searches through and tries to make connections with that. It's really weird. It doesn't make any sense. Now let me tell you the purpose. Sally has a terrible neighbor, and she's trying to think of some way to get this neighbor to move. Now read it over again. See what

your mind adds, once you know the purpose. Now you know where the gophers are...in the neighbor's yard. The peeping tom was for the neighbor, and so were the obscene phone calls. We know who changed their number...the neighbor. The classified ad was the neighbor's house finally for sale! So you see, once you know the purpose, you add the meaning between the cracks. And that's a good example of why it's so important that the purpose be perfectly clear to students so that they can add meaning to the words that are on the page, because those words often don't say the whole thing.

It is also important to provide a conceptual framework for the new knowledge. This can be accomplished by contrasts: providing examples of what the new concept is as well as what it is not. The information needs to be structured in such a way that it can be stored in the long term memory. Cognitive psychologists have found that when a framework or schema is used to organize information, it is easier to remember. A lot of what goes on in schooling is helping kids make connections. So when we present new information, we should give examples and demonstrate, categorize and structure, because if someone is going to learn it, they have to put it in a "filing system." We learned that you can get people to memorize almost anything--even gobbledygook. But two or three weeks later, they don't know it. What's important is that during the learning process we develop understanding, hooks to hang things on, a filing system--so when the information comes in, it fits. Some people at Vanderbilt did an experiment with 30 college students and 30 third graders. They gave them lists of words such as table, chair, dog, pony, apple, pear--about 30 words that third graders knew--and then they gave them a

period of time to memorize them. Well, of course the college students memorized most of them. We would do it in different ways, but we would somehow categorize those things. But the third graders didn't have enough knowledge to do their own structuring. Then they gave the same groups of people a list of cartoon characters from Saturday morning cartoons. Now who do you think won? The third graders--they categorized the characters by program. They had a better knowledge for categorizing--the college students didn't have that. So that whole thing of structuring, categorizing, and developing some system for memory is very important.

One way to provide a framework is to use a "graphic organizer" like the one shown in Figure 1 for the concept: "mammal." In Figure 1, mammals is subordinate to warm blooded vertebrates; coordinate to fish, birds and amphibians; and super-ordinate to bipeds and quadrupeds.

Many secondary students have learned to deal with the "episodic" (sequential) nature of story information, but have not learned to build the conceptual networks required by academic content ("expository" prose, e.g., science or social studies). Such graphic organizers may aid student learning of such content.

Another technique to aid students' conceptual structuring of new material is to provide an outline on the board for students to use as they take notes. Some students may not know how to take notes and may need direct instruction in how to organize and categorize information. The overview or introduction (stage setting) to the new topic should reflect the structure of concepts being taught (e.g., only the main headings in the outline), as should the summary and review of the material.

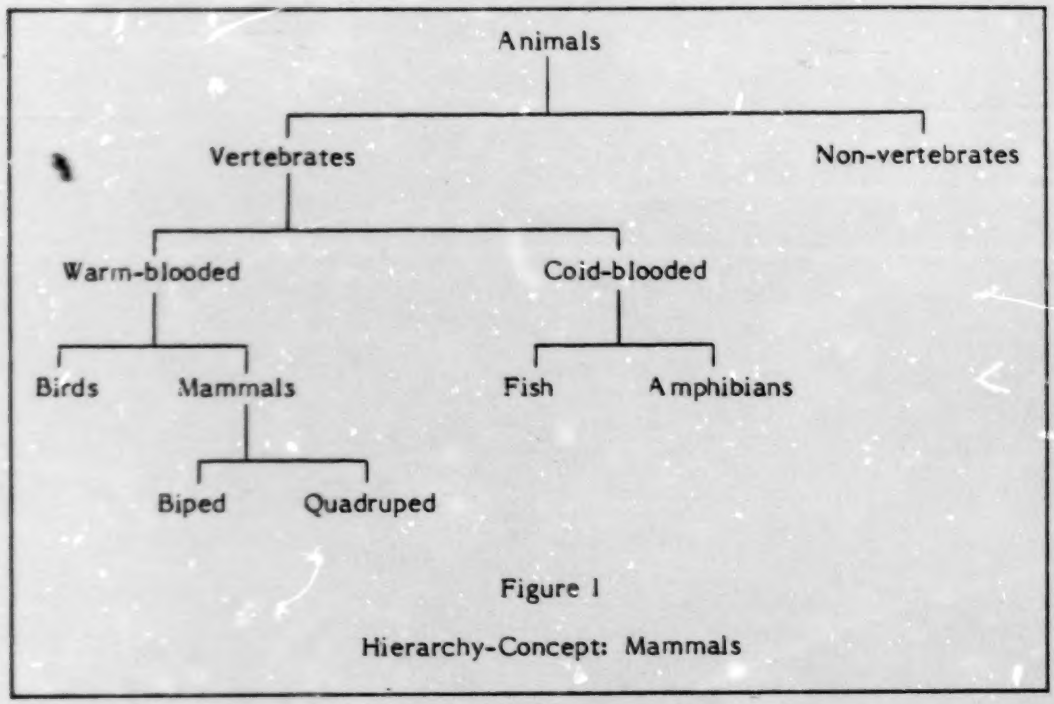

Figure 1

Hierarchy-Concept: Mammals

(SOURCE: Judith Thelen, Frostburg State College, Frostburg, Maryland)

Checking for understanding. After the instruction has been provided, it is important to see whether or not the students have learned what is expected. A good approach is to ask several of them to explain the idea or concept in their own words. I like to use some method that checks with the whole class. If the lesson has been on simple factual information, a drill and practice session may be in order. During this question-and-answer period, it is important that the teacher call on the students by name rather than call on volunteers. The reason for this is that the same students usually volunteer and many students do not participate when the volunteer answering system is used. By selecting specific students to answer each question, the teacher can distribute the questions evenly across the group and make certain that low-achieving students are asked questions that they are capable of answering. A simple way to examine who

interacts with the teacher is to mark each time the teacher speaks to a student on the seating chart. (See Appendix D.)

Reteaching. If some students do not understand the concepts, then a small group can be formed, and the teacher can reteach the concept using different examples and illustrations. This is a search for a means to link what the student already knows with the new information.

Oral reading. Oral reading can be found to be especially effective in remedial reading classes. This activity allows the teacher to diagnose students' reading abilities and provide auditory input and oral expression for students. The remedial students need to hear words and say words as well as read them and write them.

This activity should not be handled in a rote manner where students stumble over words and feel uncomfortable. Oral reading should only occur after the vocabulary and concepts have been developed. A passage that can be read with reasonable success should be selected for each student. At the end of a passage of three or four sentences, ask the student about a key concept or idea, or some particular word or concept. For example, John has just read a passage from a baseball story. Teacher, "What's a mound, John?" John answers, "A lump of ground." Teacher, "That's a good way to say it." Then the teacher proceeds to other students asking each a vocabulary question or concept question. "What does 'zip it right in' mean, Jose?" Jose, "Throw it." Teacher, "How?" Jose, "Fast."

Remember, a primary purpose of reading aloud is to provide students with the opportunity for auditory input and oral expression to aid the integration of skills and concepts. The oral expression activity is also

an opportunity to reinforce what students are expected to learn through reading silently and doing written assignments.

Summarizing. At the end of the class period, what has been learned should be summarized. Teachers often have trouble timing a lesson. It is either too long or too short and students are not occupied for the total class time or else a summary of the lesson is not provided at the end.

In the workshops provided by Stallings and Mohlman (1981) each teacher was given a profile of how their time was spent. Recommendations were made for increasing or decreasing certain activities. With discussion, modeling, and support, teachers did change how they used class time. Figure 2 shows how time is often used and how effective teachers use their time.

Supportive Environment

A supportive environment is more conducive to learning for most people, but it is especially important to students who have a history of failure. When students give incorrect answers, the teacher should use a positive and supportive technique to help the student arrive at a correct response. Teachers should avoid criticizing students or making them feel "put down." A question can be rephrased or more information provided and the question asked again. If the student still does not know the answer, the teacher should make a positive statement about some part of the student's response and move on to another student. Situations that allow students to experience total failure should be avoided. Based upon our research findings, a strong negative relationship between reading gain and

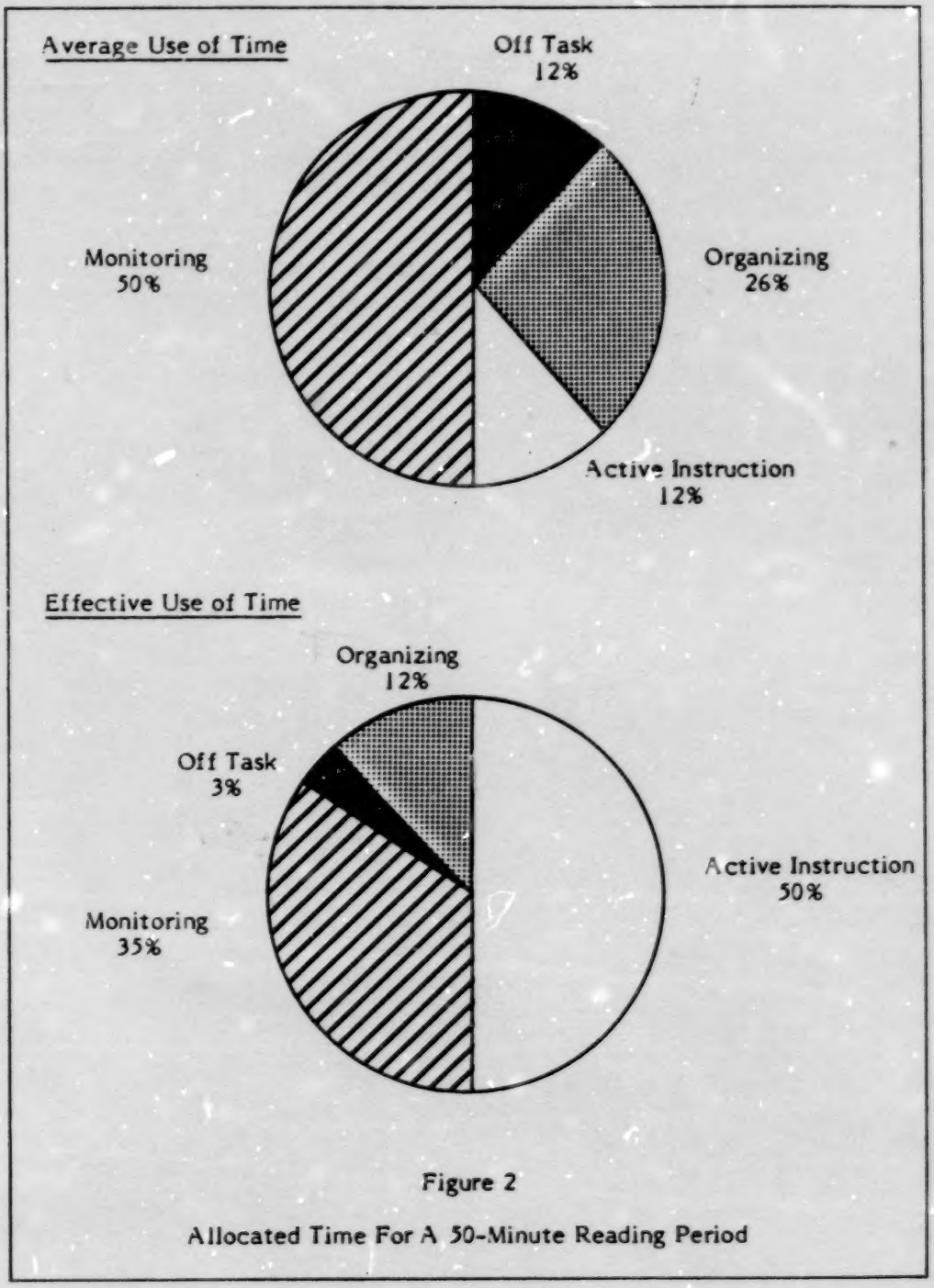

Figure 2

Allocated Time For A 50-Minute Reading Period

negative feedback was found. Thus, we recommended the following basic guidelines:

1. Do not say, "You are wrong." Rather, guide the student to a correct solution by rephrasing the question or adding some information.

2. Do not ignore the student and immediately ask another student the same question. Instead, attempt to lead the first student to the correct answer. Take some part of the answer and build upon it.

3. Do not embarrass the student in any way. It is all right to be wrong. The name of the game is support and success.

Students also need to receive some low key positive reinforcement for acceptable responses. These students need many opportunities to succeed either on written work or oral responses. In such a positive environment, students stay on task more, they experience more feelings of accomplishment, and learning becomes a pleasurable experience. When students receive appropriate external reinforcement for their success, they will develop their own inner feelings of success and pride. Teachers should provide the atmosphere and opportunities that allow students to experience success. An axiom for teachers when organizing their classroom and executing the program is that: the prime motivation for learning is success. (See Appendix D for a list of alternative ways to say, "Good for you.")

Student Outcomes

The link between students being on task and making more academic gain has been clearly established. Therefore, it is important to notice under what classroom conditions students are more likely to stay on task. Findings in several of our studies indicate that students are on task more often when teachers provide more interactive instruction, several activities during a class period, and a supportive environment.

When these conditions are more prevalent, students are absent less often and voice a more positive attitude toward the instruction in their classroom. Conversely, students are off-task more often in classrooms where the principal activities are silent reading and/or worksheets. These are non-interactive activities where students spend most of their time working alone in reading or writing activities. There is very little oral input or verbal expression to help them integrate skills. Students are also absent more often in such classrooms. As a Chicago principal, Major Armstead, said, "Students vote with their feet for good instruction."

STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING: A SUMMARY

Here is a list of all major teaching strategies currently being used. Use it to help you develop, analyze and expand your repertoire of teaching skills and behaviors as you individualize instruction for your students.

1. LECTURE--teacher gives oral presentation

   Advantages

   - Used for wide dissemination of information
   - Helps develop listening skills

   Disadvantages

   - Tends to be a one-way process with student in passive role
   - Difficult to measure student learning and/or interest

2. DISCUSSION--students and teacher talk together to share information or solve a problem

   Advantages

   - Students play important, active role
   - Urges students to organize facts and ask discerning questions

   Disadvantages

   - Unpredictable and difficult to manage
   - Teacher must be expert in group process skills

3. DRILL AND PRACTICE--often used together. Drill = fixation of specific associations for automatic recall; and practice = learning to improve

   Advantages

   - Students concentrate on one specific learning task
   - Can generate feeling of success and mastery

   Disadvantages

   - Without supervision, students might practice incorrectly
   - Can be boring and monotonous

4. INDEPENDENT STUDY--individual students study topics (either self-selected or supervised)

Advantages

- Allows student to study an area in great depth
- Appropriate for all areas of the curriculum

Disadvantages

- Little social interaction unless planned for
- Requires many independent skills from students

5. GROUP INVESTIGATION--a group of students organized for study (either part of a large study or independently pursuing their own topic)

Advantages

- Allows students to actively be involved in their own learning
- Conducive to developing leadership, discussion and process skills

Disadvantages

- Requires many independent skills--productivity can break down when problems in group arise

6. LABORATORY APPROACH--students have "hands on" experience with topic of study (i.e. field trips, manipulatives, experiments, etc.)

Advantages

- Allows for direct involvement by student
- Can be multi-sensory

Disadvantages

- Teacher must be quite knowledgeable in field of study
- Requires careful, thorough planning
- Information is usually obtained more slowly

7. DISCOVERY--emphasizes individual study, manipulation of objects, and other experimentation before generalizations are made (inquiry and problem solving are among skills taught)

Advantages

- Can strengthen student's self-concept
- Can be exciting and motivating

Disadvantages

- Not efficient for teaching large group of students and/or large amounts of content
- Calls for divergent thinking which may be confusing and frustrating for some students

8. THE LEARNING CENTER--a designated area or space in the classroom (or school) where students go to independently work on tasks (can be skill, interest, or reinforcement centers); many different approaches

Advantages

- May be used in wide variety of settings
- Allows students to proceed at their own pace and ability level

Disadvantages

- Encourages an active environment that may be unsuitable for all students
- Requires much planning and systematic record keeping

9. SIMULATION--students are asked to pretend to be someone else, for the purpose of learning more about how other people feel and act (includes techniques of role-playing, sociodrama, and simulation games)

Advantages

- Activities can be fun and motivating
- Allows for experimentation that cannot take place in the real environment
- Can promote class unity

Disadvantages

- Can be time consuming
- Requires much imagination on the part of the teacher and the students

10. BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION--stimulus-response conditioning (changing behavior by rewarding the kind of behavior desired and ignoring or disapproving the behavior you wish to discourage)

Advantages

- Good for pinpointing specific behaviors to be changed

Disadvantages

- Regarded by some as a "gimmick" or a means of manipulation
- Students may not be able to move from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards for learning

11. PERFORMANCE-BASED LEARNING ACTIVITY PACKAGES--programmed learning by means of individual student packets or workbooks

Advantages

- Self-pacing

Disadvantages

- Often viewed as impersonal and "factory-lined"
- Skills often seen as an end in themselves with no means for application

12. DO-LOOK-LEARN--teacher-guided, small group instruction

DO--Teacher creates an opportunity that will provide a common "here and now" experience (let's write endings to this incomplete story)

LOOK--Students "look" at themselves as they prepare to do the task (review the directions and process for completing task)

LEARN--Students practice (guided and independent); teacher monitors and adjusts

Advantages

- Can be used for wide variety of age levels
- Can be used for all disciplines of curriculum

Disadvantages

- Students can become teacher-dependent
- The other students in class must have skills for independence

This information was taken from Current Strategies for Teachers, by Gilstrap and Martin, Goodyear Publishing Company, Santa Monica, CA.

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HANDOUTS

TIME OFF TASK MANUAL

The object of the Time Off Task observation instrument is to record a sample of all students' attending behavior or non-productive use of time during a scheduled reading or math period. The following behaviors are considered Off-Task and On-Task.

Off-Task Behaviors:

C = Chatting	Low talking or whispering, passing notes between students which pulls them off-task
D = Disruptive	Bothering a number of students, e.g., loud talking, throwing things, pushing or fighting
P = Personal Needs	Sharpening pencils, going to the toilet, getting a drink, getting papers or books
W = Waiting	Waiting with hand up for teacher's attention, waiting for materials to be passed

On-Task Behaviors:

* Reading "sanctioned" material
* Playing academic games
* Listening to directions
* Listening to academic content or interactions
* Watching demonstrations related to academic work
* Writing related to academic work
* Reporting, answering or reading aloud
* Performing an academically-related task, e.g., an experiment or project

Activities:

It is also of interest to know what was the expected activity when students were off-task. Were they supposed to be doing seat work (silent reading or written work); listening to the teacher making assignments or organizing (getting papers and books out); listening to the teacher's instructions or explanation; reading aloud; taking part in a question/answer period (children writing math problems on the board is included); or waiting in line for the materials.

S = Seatwork	Student is working at seat on silent reading or written assignment
O = Organizing	Listening to the teacher make assignments or organizing; getting paper and books out
I = Instruction	Listening to the teacher's explanation of content or subject matter
R = Reading Oral	Student is reading aloud
Q = Question/Answer	Teacher poses question to students; includes students writing math problems on the board
W = Waiting	Waiting in line or for materials

Procedures (Code every five minutes)

The observer will need a seating chart with all of the student's names on it. The boxes need to be large enough so that several entries can be made. In the lower grades where students move in and out of groups, it will be necessary to place large name tags on the children if you don't know the children. (Names on two tag boards with yarn going over the shoulders works well.)

Enter the teacher name, date and time on the form. Immediately after the period starts, make a scan or a visual sweep of the room --- going clockwise from the door you entered. Any student who is off task will be shown with one of the following symbols:

C = Chatting P = Personal Needs W = Waiting
D = Disruptive U = Uninvolved

Now make a slash mark and under the slash mark show what the student was supposed to be doing: seatwork, organizing, etc., as listed under activities. Make the marks small enough so that several entries can be made.

Watch the clock and make visual sweeps of the classroom every five minutes until the period ends. Count the total number of sweeps you made and enter that on the form.

On Figure 1, we find that Jeff was uninvolved four out of ten sweeps. This occurred during instruction, seatwork and recitation period. What might be Jeff's problem? Bill was uninvolved during instruction and seatwork. Ursula and Sharon were chatting during organization time and seatwork. In each case, the teacher can make a judgement about what to do to help each child use their time effectively.

A summary of the percent of students off-task can be found by using the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{the sum of the number of students off-task for each observation}}{\text{the number of students} \times \text{the number of sweeps}}$$

For example:

In a classroom of 30 students, 10 observations were made. In the first observation, two students were observed to be off-task; in the second observation, four students were off-task; third - three students; fourth = five students; fifth = three students; sixth = one student; seventh = two students; eighth = four students; ninth = seven students; and the tenth time, six students were off-task.

Using these figures, we obtain the following equation:

$$\frac{2+4+3+5+3+1+2+4+7+6}{30 \times 10} = \frac{37}{300} = 12.3$$

Thus, we have found that 12.3% of the students were off-task during this period.

Figure 1

STUDENTS OFF-TASK SEATING CHART

Teacher Name: Jane Smith Time: 9:00

Date: 9/12/84 Number of Sweeps: 10

Mrs. Smith (front of classroom)			
Flora	Mark	Betty	Joe
Jeff U/I ① U/S ② U/S ⑤ U/Q ⑥	Susan	Robert	Dona
Ursula C/O ⑤ C/S ⑦	Daniel	Ellen	Bill U/I ① U/S ② U/S ④ U/S ⑤
Sharon C/O ⑤ C/S ⑦	Jack C/S ⑥ C/S ⑦	Lee U/I ① C/S ② C/S ⑥ C/S ⑦	Mary

Students' Off-Task Codes

C = Chatting
D = Disruptive
P = Personal Needs
U = Uninvolved
W = Waiting

Time Sweep

① ② ③ ④
⑤ ⑥ ⑦
⑧ ⑨ ⑩

Activity Codes

I = Instruction
O = Organizing
R = Oral Reading
S = Seating
Q = Question/Answer
W = Waiting

Source: Stallings Teaching and Learning Institute

SUMMARIZING OFF TASK SEATING CHART

Who was off task the most?

Where were they sitting?

What was the most off task behavior?

_____ Chatting
_____ Disruptive
_____ Personal Needs
_____ Uninvolved
_____ Waiting

What might be the cause?

In what activity were students most off task?

_____ Seatwork
_____ Organizing
_____ Instruction
_____ Oral Reading
_____ Question/Answer
_____ Waiting

What might be the cause?

In what sweep were most off task?

_____ 1
_____ 2
_____ 3
_____ 4
_____ 5
_____ 6
_____ 7
_____ 8
_____ 9
_____ 10

What might be the cause?

BEGINNING SPONGES (PRIMARY)

Be ready to tell one playground rule....

Be ready to tell me the names of the children in our class which begin with J or M, etc.

Be ready to draw something that is only drawn with circles.

Be ready to tell a good health habit....

Have a color word on the board. Have children draw something that color.

Flash fingers--children tell how many fingers.

Say numbers, days of the week, months--and have children tell what comes next.

"I went to the sporting goods store and I bought...." Each child names an item.

What number comes between these two numbers: 31-33, 45-47, etc.?

What number comes before/after 46, 52, 13, etc.?

Have a word written on the board. Children make a list of words that rhyme.

Have a word written on the board. Children list words with the same long or short vowel sound.

Put spelling words in alphabetical order.

Count to 100 by 2's, 5's, 10's, etc., either oral or written.

Use T squares to drill math fundamentals.

Think of animals that live on a farm, in the jungle, in water, etc.

Give names of fruits, vegetables, meats, etc.

Hangman--using the names of the children in the class, or colors, or numbers.

Simon says....

List things you can touch, things you can smell, big things, small things, etc.

List the colors you are wearing.

Developed by Rose Kauffman and Pat Wolfe
NAPA County School District, California

DISMISSAL SPONGES

Clapping games.

Finger plays.

"I Spy"--Who can find something in the room that starts with M, P, etc.?

Who can find something in the room that has the sound of short a, long a, etc.?

Number rows or tables. Teacher signals # of table with fingers, children leave accordingly.

Those children who have all crayons put away may leave now, etc.

Those with freckles may leave, buckled shoes, new front teeth, etc.

Count in order or by 2's, 5's, etc.

Say the days of the week, the months of the year.

What day is it, what month is it, what is the date, what is the year, how many months in a year, how many days in a week, etc.?

Reward activity: "We have had a good day! Who helped it be a good day for all of us? Betty, you brought flowers to brighten our room. You may leave. John, you remembered to rinse your hands, good for you. You may leave. Ellen showed us that she could be quiet coming into the room today. You may leave, Ellen. Bob remembered his library book all by himself. Dawn walked all the way to the playground--she remembered our safety rules. Lori brought things to share with us. Tom surprised us with a perfect spelling paper--he must have practiced, etc., etc." Some students can be grouped together for good deeds to speed things up. Teacher can finish, "You're all learning to be very thoughtful. I'm very proud of you and you should be very proud of yourselves."

Use flashcards. A first correct answer earns dismissal.

To review the four basic shapes, each child names an object in the room either in the shape of a triangle, circle, square, etc.

Say a word that begins or ends with certain consonants, blends, etc.

Dismiss by color of eyes, color of clothing, type or color of shoes, month of birthday, season of birthday, beginning letter of first name, beginning letter of last name.

Name an object that begins with B, C, etc. Pretend you are this object as you leave.

What will we remember for tomorrow?

UPPER GRADE SPONGES

1. List the continents of the world.
2. Make up three names for rock groups.
3. Name as many kinds of windstorms as you can.
4. Take a number. Write it. Now make a face out of it.
5. Name as many gems or precious stones as you can.
6. Write the names of all the girls in the class.
7. Name as many teachers at this school as you can.
8. List as many states as you can.
9. Write: (a) an abbreviation, (b) a Roman numeral, (c) a trademark, (d) a proper name (biographical), and (e) a proper name (geographical).
10. How many countries and their capitals can you name?
11. How many baseball teams can you name?
12. Write down as many cartoon characters as you can.
13. List as many kinds of flowers as you can.
14. Turn to your neighbor. One of you tell the other about an interesting experience you have had. The listener must be prepared to retell the story to the class.
15. List all the things in your living room.
16. Write what you would do if you saw an elephant in your backyard.
17. Name as many kinds of ice cream as you can.
18. List five parts of the body <u>above the neck</u> that have three letters.
19. List one manufactured item for each letter of the alphabet.
20. List as many nouns in the room as you can.
21. List the mountain ranges of the U. S.
22. Write the 12 months of the year correctly. Stand up as soon as you are finished.
23. Make a list of five things you do after school.

Developed by Rose Kauffman and Pat Wolfe

24. List one proper noun for each letter of the alphabet.

25. Write one kind of food beginning with each letter of the alphabet.

26. Name as many holidays as you can.

27. How far can you count and write down by 6's?

28. Name as many balls as you can that are used in sports games.

29. List as many U. S. presidents as you can.

30. List all the work tools you can think of.

31. List as many models of cars as you can.

32. Name all the colors you know.

33. How many parts of an auto can you list?

34. How many animals can you list that begin with vowels?

35. List as many kind of trees as you can.

36. Name as many countries of the world as you can.

37. List as many personal pronouns as you can.

38. List as many kinds of transportation as you can.

39. How many different kinds of languages can you name?

40. Write as many homonyms as you can. Example: past-passed.

41. You have five children. Make up their five names.

42. Name as many things as you can that are made of cloth.

43. Name as many things as you can that you can wear on your head.

44. Name as many movie stars as you can (not TV).

45. List all the musical instruments that begin with "t."

46. Name as many TV game shows as you can.

47. Name as many politicians as you can.

48. Name as many breeds of dogs as you can.

49. Write the days of the week correctly in order. Stand up when finished.

50. List all the kinds of sandwiches that you can.

51. Scramble five spelling words, trade with someone, and unscramble them.

52. List as many things as you can that make people the same.

53. List as many kinds of soup as you can.

54. List all the places you find sand.

55. List as many breakfast cereals as you can.

SECONDARY SPONGES

1. List as many states as you can.
2. Write: (a) an abbreviation, (b) a Roman numeral, (c) a trademark, (d) a proper noun (biographical), and (e) a proper name (geographical.
3. How many countries and their capitals can you name?
4. How many baseball teams can you name?
5. Turn to your neighbor. One of you tell the other about an interesting experience you have had. The listener must be prepared to retell the story to the class.
6. List all the things in your living room.
7. Name as many kinds of ice cream as you can.
8. List five parts of the body above the neck that have three letters.
9. List one manufactured item for each letter of the alphabet.
10. List one proper noun for each letter of the alphabet.
11. Write one kind of food beginning with each letter of the alphabet.
12. Name as many holidays as you can.
13. List as many U. S. presidents as you can.
14. List as many models of cars as you can.
15. How many parts of an auto can you list?
16. Name as many countries of the world as you can.
17. List as many personal pronouns as you can.
18. List as many kinds of transportation as you can.
19. Write as many homonyms as you can. Example: past-passed.
20. Name as many movie stars as you can (not TV).
21. Name as many politicians as you can.
22. List all the places you find sand.
23. List as many breakfast cereals as you can.

Developed by Rose Kauffman and Pat Wolfe

24. Make a list of the 10 largest things you know.

25. Name as many planets as you can.

26. List all the sports you can think of.

27. List all the foods you can that have sugar in them.

28. List all the foods you can that have milk in them.

29. Name as many rock groups as you can that begin with the letters A-F.

30. Name as many teachers at this school as you can.

31. Name all the models of Datsun cars you can think of.

32. Name all the parts of speech and give an example of each.

33. Why were these dates important: 1492, 1606, 1776, 1812?

34. Find these rivers on the map: Mississippi, Rio Grande, Colorado, Hudson.

35. Which TV series can you name that have high school-aged characters as regulars?

36. Name as many airlines as you can.

37. Name the different sections of the newspaper.

38. Name as many islands as you can.

39. Name all the types of musical instruments you can think of.

40. Name all the foods you can think of that contain protein.

41. Name as many kinds of fish as you can.

42. Name all the words you can that begin with the prefix "in."

43. Name as many as you can of the album titles of records by: Linda Ronstadt, The Eagles.

44. Name all the countries that have the letter "E" in them.

45. Name as many animals as you can which cause harm to man, either directly or indirectly.

46. Name five books you've read recently that you really enjoyed.

47. Name a movie you saw recently that you did <u>not</u> enjoy and tell why.

48. Name as many places as you can remember where you and your family have spent vacations.

49. List things you would buy if someone gave you a $100.00 gift certificate from Broadway.

TEACHER'S INTERACTIONS WITH STUDENTS
SEATING CHART

This data is to be collected throughout the selected class period.

A simple way to collect information on the teacher's interaction patterns is to record on a seating chart each time the teacher speaks to an individual student. The coding can be as follows:

? = Teacher asks a student a direct question: "Johnny, what is the spelling of the word 'voyage'?"

ⓠ = Teacher asks student an open-ended, thought-provoking question: "Ursula, what do you think will happen next in this story?"

✓ = Teacher checks for understanding: "Tell us in your words, Maria, what photo-synthesis means."

✓ = Teacher makes a comment or response: "Flora, you hair looks nice today."

+ = Teacher praises or supports a response: "Very good, Jose, 'forty-two' is the correct answer."

C = Teacher corrects a student's response: "No Barbara, that is wrong;" or "The correct answer should have been 'Mark Twain'."

G = Teacher corrects and guides a response: "Janice, try spelling the word one letter at a time, according to how it sounds, and see if you can figure it out."

- = Teacher reprimands behavior: "Martin, be quiet."

* = Student initiated remarks or questions (NOT in response to teacher's questions)

On the next page, we see an example where the teacher has asked Sue a direct question and has given Bill a reprimand.

These data can help teachers see to whom they are speaking and the nature of the interaction. It will also provide a frequency count of the questions asked, praise given, reprimands, and so forth.

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NOTE: If the classroom seating takes a different form than the seating chart, for example, tables are arranged in a horseshoe formation instead of rows of desks, then the seating chart should be redrawn to conform to the actual classroom arrangement. The important thing is to get each student's name in the right place on the seating chart.

TEACHER'S INTERACTIONS WITH STUDENTS SEATING CHART

DATE: _____ SCHOOL: _____

Mrs. Smith			
(front of classroom)			
Flora ?G+	Mark ✓✓	Betty	Joe ?+
Jose	Susan ?+, ?G+	Robert ?C	Dona
Ursula —	Daniel	Ellen	Bill —
Sharon —	Jack	Lee —	Mary

INSTRUCTIONS:

1. Fill in student's names in appropriate seats. Fill in the dates.
2. Each time the teacher speaks to an individual student, record the appropriate code in the student's box.

CODES:

- ? = Asks a direct question
- ? = Asks an open-ended question
- ? = Checks for understanding
- ✓ = Makes a comment or response
- * = Student initiated
- + = Praises or supports a response
- C = Corrects a response
- G = Corrects and guides a response
- – = Reprimands behavior

Source: Stallings Teaching and Learning Institute

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

TEACHER'S INTERACTIONS WITH STUDENTS
SEATING CHART OBSERVATION

CODE	ITEM	USAGE
? ?	Direct Question Calls for single right answer, simple recall of fact; includes review questions	Code ? is recorded for a request for permission, information or direct recall of previously learned material. A yes/no answer or some other type of specific response (such as a statement of facts, itemization, classification, or a definition) or an action is anticipated. **Examples** "What is the capitol of Tennessee?" "How many degrees are in a right triangle?" "What is the opposite of black?"
? ?	Evaluative Questions/ Checks for Understanding Calls for Thinking; Summarizing; Explaining; Analyzing; Compare and Contrast Requires higher-order thinking, beyond simple recall of facts	Code ? is used for teacher questions that ask if the students understand the content or procedures of the lesson. The teacher must pause and allow time for students to respond. Very brief questions that do not allow enough time for students to respond or ask questions are not coded ?. **Examples** "Explain in your own words what 'ratio' means." "Summarize today's discussion on Civil Rights." "What is wrong with problem #3?"
(?) (?)	Open-Ended Questions Conjecture; Feeling; Open to Speculation; Brainstorming	Code (?) is recorded for a question which allows the respondent a free expression of ideas, feelings, and opinions. No obvious right or wrong answer is apparent. **Examples** "What is another way the story could end?" "What might have happened if Lincoln had not been shot?" "Who is your favorite character in the story? WHY?"

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CODE	ITEM	USAGE
✓	Social Remarks	Code ✓ is used for teacher's greetings, personal compliments, remarks that are social or not related to a task. All social remarks, whether questions, responses, or initiated statements, are coded ✓. **Examples** Teacher says to student, "You got your hair cut --- I hardly recognize you." Student says to teacher, "I'm getting a new stereo for my birthday." In a reading class teacher says to student, "I saw you playing football yesterday."
+	Support/Acknowledge/ Praise	Code + is used for statements that are supportive or show recognition; for example, an indication that a response, product, or behavior is recognized or agreed with. Code + is also used for repeating another individual's statement immediately, as a form of acknowledgement. It also includes praise. Code + also indicates non-verbal acknowledgement or praise. The code may be used for academic or behavior praise/acknowledgement. **Examples** Teacher repeats a student's answer as an acknowledgment. Teacher writes student's answer on board. After class settles down as a result of teacher's request, he or she says, "That's better. Thank you." Teacher says to class, "The results of your spelling tests are superb. I'm very pleased!"

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CODE	ITEM	USAGE
C	Correction	Code C is recorded for attempts by the teacher to inform student(s) that a response is not correct or that behavior is unacceptable. Examples Teacher tells student to stop combing her hair. Student has responded incorrectly to the teacher's request to spell a word. Teacher says, "No, that's not right", "It is K-N-I-G-H-T", or calls on another student. Teacher says, "No, the answer is 82."
G	Guide	The G code is used anytime a teacher is attempting to modify students' academic responses by guiding them to another solution, or by adding a little more information, or by asking a probing question. Any attempt to help the students get a correct answer other than telling them. Examples "Your answer is partially right. What else defines a Shakespearean tragedy?" "One tragedy has two young people who are in love but their families are enemies. What happens to them?" "Don't give up. What is your hunch?" or "Make your best guess."
*	Student Initiated Remarks or Questions	Code * when the student has initiated a remark or question that is not in response to the teacher's questions. (Unless a social remark, coded ✓.) Examples "Mr. Black, who is responsible for regulating pesticide usage on farm crops?"

CODE	ITEM	USAGE
—	Negative	The — code is used for any sarcastic or demeaning statements, overt displays of anger, or threats made by teacher or students.
		Example Student has answered incorrectly, and teacher says, "What a stupid answer."
		—is also used when a teacher sends a student from the room for disciplinary reasons. Code — throughout the entire interaction.
		Example Teacher says, "I will not argue any longer --- go to the vice-principal's office."
		The — code is used when, as punishment, the teacher withdraws privileges or assigns extra work, and when the student(s) respond to these punitive actions. Code — throughout the entire interaction.
		Example Teacher tells student he may not participate in a group game because of a misbehavior in class.
		— is coded when a student obviously displays feelings of hurt or humiliation. These expressions may be obvious and accompanied by at least one of the actions listed below.
		Example In response to a teacher reprimand: -Student covers face with an object or hands. -Student puts head down on desk. -Student says that he or she feels hurt or humiliated. -Student leaves room angrily.

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Name _____ Date _____

SUMMARY OF INTERACTION SEATING CHART

How many students were in the class? _____

How many students were spoken to? _____

Where was the student most spoken to sitting? _____

Where were the students not spoken to sitting? _____

Was there any pattern? _____

Number of Direct Questions asked? _____

Number of Checks for Understanding asked? _____

Number of Open Ended Questions asked? _____

Number of Guides? _____

Number of Corrections? _____

Number of Praises? _____

Number of Reprimands? _____

SIXTY-FOUR WAYS TO SAY, "GOOD FOR YOU"

Everyone knows that a little praise goes a long way in any classroom. But a "little praise" really needs to be something more than the same few phrases repeated over and over ad nauseum. Your students need more than the traditional "Good," "Very Good," and "Fine"...if encouragement is in the cards. Here are some additional possibilities.

That's <u>really</u> nice.
Wow!
I like the way you're working.
Everyone's working so hard.
Much better.
It's a pleasure to teach when you work like this.
What neat work!
This kind of work pleases me very much.
That's right! Good for you.
I bet your Mom and Dad would be proud to see the job you did on this.
Thank you for (sitting down, being quiet, getting right to work, etc.).
Right on.
Sharp!
I like the way Tom is working.
My goodness, how impressive!
That's "A" work.
Mary is waiting quietly.
Ann is paying attention.
That's clever.
Very interesting.
That's an interesting way of looking at it.
That's the right answer.
Exactly right.
Superior work.
That's a very good observation.
That's an interesting point of view.
Nice going.
You make it look easy.
I like the way Bill (the class) has settled down.
Sheri is really going to town.
That's coming along nicely.
Thank you very much.
That's great.
Keep up the good work.
That's quite an improvement.
Keep it up.
Good job.
Excellent work.
You really outdid yourself today.
Congratulations. You had ____ right.
Beautiful.
Terrific.
I'm very proud of the way you worked today.
I appreciate your help.
Very good. Why don't you show the class?
Marvelous.
Groovy.
For sure.
That looks like it's going to be a great report.
You're on the right track now.
John is in line.
Dickie got right down to work.
It looks like you put a lot of work into this.
Very creative.
Now you've figured it out.
Clifford has it.
Now you've got the hang of it.
Super.
That's a good point.
You've got it now.
That certainly is one way of looking at it.
Thank you for raising your hand, Charles. What is it?
Out of sight.
Far out.